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A College Department Studies Its Transfer Students

By RUTH T. LEHMAN

THE presence of a large number of transfer students in a college has many implications for guidance of students, classroom teaching, curriculum planning, and administration. It was on this assumption that the School of Home Economics, Ohio State University, studied its transfer students during the four-year period, 1937–41, inclusive. The official transcripts which are on file with the Entrance Board, grade sheets, and questionnaires which are filled out by students at time of entrance were consulted in finding the answers to certain specific questions: How large a proportion of the student body are transfer students? From what schools do they come? At what point in their college careers do they transfer? Why did they change schools? What kinds of records do they make here? How long do they stay?

In numbers the transfer group makes up a significant part of the School of Home Economics. In the period studied, there were 447 transfer students, exclusive of those classified as irregular or transient and those who held Bachelors' degrees when they entered. They formed approximately one-third of the student body. They were distributed mainly over the last three years of college: 45 to 50 per cent of the junior and senior classes, about 33 per cent of the Sophomores, and less than 10 per cent of the Freshmen were transfer students. Furthermore, the incoming group of new transfer students each autumn (about 80 to 90) approximated one-third of all new students.

Forty-two per cent of the group of 447 students had transferred from other departments or colleges of Ohio State University. Half of them came from the College of Education

and over one-third from the College of Arts and Sciences. Small numbers came from several other colleges.

Two hundred and sixty of the students transferred from 101 other institutions scattered through 26 states. Seventy-nine per cent of these students, however, were from Ohio colleges and universities; 17 per cent, from out-of-state institutions; 4 per cent had attended schools both in Ohio and in other states. The large proportion from Ohio did not represent a marked drain on any one college. The schools furnishing maximum numbers—and these were among the larger institutions—averaged only about four students a year. Most of the students from other colleges and universities (87 per cent) had previously attended only one school. Of these, two-thirds were from privately supported colleges, and one-third from state or municipal institutions. A small number (13 per cent) had attended from two to four colleges before transfer.

THE time of transfer shows a rather consistent picture. Students from other colleges of Ohio State University (65 per cent) tended to transfer during or at the close of the freshman year and in similar numbers in all three quarters of the academic year. Most of those transferring to Home Economics from another college on the campus had not previously declared their major and may or may not have been following a home-economics curriculum. Students from other institutions came largely at the close of either the freshman or sophomore year (43 and 38 per cent, respectively) and almost always (84 per cent) in the autumn. Sixty per cent of them had previously been following a home-economics or pre-home-economics curriculum. Thirty-one per cent, a significant proportion, however, had been in other fields. In a few cases there were no data on this point.

Little information regarding reasons for transfer was recorded. Conferences with students indicated, however, that a number transferred in order to take work in one of the Ohio colleges which give preparation for the vocational (Smith-Hughes) certificate in home economics or to attend a school which offers a curriculum for dietitians. The validity of this assumption is indicated by the fact that over three-fourths of the group who completed the requirements for graduation specialized in either teaching or dietetics.

In any case, both intelligence ratings and marks received for work done in previous departments suggest that transfer was not usually due to lack of ability. Almost half (45 per cent) of the entire group of 447 students had intelligence percentile ratings of 75 or higher; only 5 per cent were below the 25th percentile. Furthermore, when for the purpose of this study marks earned in transferred courses were evaluated on a scale assigning a value of 4 to a mark of *A*, only 14 per cent had a point-hour ratio below 2. Half of these had been on probation or out-under-rules or both in their former department or college.

THE quality of work done after transfer gives further evidence of the ability of the group. Nearly three-fourths of the students (71 per cent) received marks of 2 or higher at the close of their first quarter after entrance. In fact 17 per cent had a point-hour ratio of 3 or above. The final cumulative point-hour ratio of those who were graduated showed satisfactory achievement: 16 per cent were at the level of 3 or higher; 77 per cent, 2.00–2.99; and only 7 per cent, below 2. Moreover, 61 per cent of those students who left the department without completing the four-year course had attained a cumulative point-hour ratio at least as high as that required for graduation.

Only half of the students entering as transfer students may be expected to complete the work for a degree according to an analysis of the group which entered in the first year of the study. Four years later 51 per cent of these students had been graduated; 47 per cent had left college or had transferred elsewhere.

Trends of residence for the entire group are evident in a study of the records of the 137 inactive students and the 166 graduates who had left college by the time the study was completed. Almost three-fourths (71 per cent) of the inactive students had remained in the School from one to three quarters. Most of those who were graduated (81 per cent) were in residence from seven to twelve quarters. Little is known about the reason for students' becoming inactive, but it may be significant that in general these students tended less to be in residence for consecutive quarters than did those who were finally graduated.

The extra time paid for transferring is seen in the total quarters which graduates spent in both the School of Home Economics and in their previous department or institution. Only 22 per cent of this group took the normal twelve quarters to complete their course; about twice as many (53 per cent) needed thirteen or fourteen quarters; and 24 per cent, fifteen quarters or more. A significant difference, however, was evident in the case of transfers from other colleges on the campus and of those from other institutions. More than one-third of the former (39 per cent) received their degree in the normal twelve quarters and only 15 per cent required fifteen or more quarters. The figures are reversed for those from other institutions: 14 per cent of these students were graduated in twelve quarters, while almost one-third took at least fifteen.

The total time required for graduation was affected by the amount and type of credit transferred, as well as by the student's class rank at the time of transfer. Many students had excess credit. About one-fourth of the group had over half their transfer credit in courses not required in the prescribed curriculums of the School. Practically everyone had some courses in this category. A recent study indicates that excess credit of transfer students tends to accumulate in the areas of social science and foreign language.

A STUDY of the group of transfer students in a department is useful in discovering what the transfer situation really is, what the facts imply, and what may be feasible solutions of problems indicated. In the present instance the following implications seem to be indicated in the findings and to be particularly pertinent to the local situation.

The transfer group constitutes a significant minority of the student body of the School of Home Economics, and its needs therefore must continually be considered in administering the student guidance program of the School, in planning the curriculum, and in teaching individual courses.

The need for flexibility in curriculum requirements for capable transfer students is suggested by several facts. The students come from a large number and variety of institutions, precluding uniformity of background. Not more than half of them have previously been following a home-economics curriculum. Much of the credit transferred by students is for

courses not required in the prescribed curriculums of the School. Recognition of the values of the previously followed curriculum for the education of the student as a homemaker and a professional person is desirable.

Suggested also is a need for greater flexibility within courses and therefore greater individualization of teaching, particularly at the junior and senior level, since a large proportion of these classes are transfer students. These students have not had the normal sequence of courses in the earlier years, nor the normal guidance program of students who entered as Freshmen.

More information concerning transfer students at the time of entrance is also needed. The ability of the group in general has been shown to be satisfactory, but comparatively little is known as to students' reasons for transfer, the quality of their work in the previous institution or department other than as shown by a mark, or the background of knowledge and experience provided by the earlier curriculum.

Furthermore, transfer students' reasons for withdrawal from the School should be analyzed and plans to meet the situation in the case of capable students made. This conclusion is suggested by the large percentage of students who leave before completing the requirements for a degree.

Finally, it is evident that the transfer group presents special problems of student guidance, for this group has needs which are varied and different from those of the regular four-year student. First, a need for expansion of pre-entrance guidance would seem to be indicated by the number of withdrawals. By such means students might be helped to discover whether their interests and abilities are at all compatible with the requirements and opportunities of the field. Those who are obviously not best qualified for home economics might be guided into other fields better suited to their needs and interests and be saved further disappointment. Second, a need for emphasis on early guidance after entrance would also seem to be indicated by the fact that many students are available for guidance for no more than one year.

Motion Pictures in Teacher Education

By ROY WENGER

COLLEGES of education for more than a decade have been urging public-school teachers to use motion pictures as one of the effective ways of presenting materials. They have been reasonably successful in this, for motion pictures are accepted today in many public schools as one of the essential aids in the teaching program.

Are motion pictures being used in the college of education in which the teachers are trained? Do instructors in education practice what they preach in this particular? To find out the facts about film use in the College of Education, Ohio State University, the writer sought the answers to three questions:

To what extent are films used in the teacher-education program?
What problems are encountered by those who use films?
Why do some instructors not use films in their teaching programs?

To obtain answers to these questions, three instruments were used: a post-card questionnaire asking each staff member whether or not he had used motion pictures in his classes during 1941, a questionnaire to those who had used motion pictures, and a questionnaire to those who had not used motion pictures.

All the questions on the post cards were answered. The results of this poll are shown in the table which follows. Of the 187 staff members who taught classes during the year, 46 per cent used motion pictures in their classes. The instructors were allocated to ten divisions inside and outside the College, since some of the courses were taught by members of other faculties than that of the College. The percentages of the instructors who used motion pictures in their classes were:

	Per Cent
Administrative officers	33
Bureau of Educational Research	17
Bureau of Special and Adult Education	0
University School	47
Department of Education	50
Department of Fine Arts	52
Department of Music	10
Department of Physical Education	67
Department of Psychology	77
Faculty members outside the College	12

Great percentage differences exist among the divisions judged by the number of instructors who used motion pictures, ranging from none in the Bureau of Special and Adult Education to 77 per cent in the Department of Psychology. The Department of Physical Education ranked second, with 67 per cent of the instructors using films, the Department of Fine Arts third, with 52 per cent, and the Department of Education (exclusive of the University School and the Bureaus) fourth, with 50 per cent of its instructors using films. Thus, approximately half of the classroom instructors in the College do make use of motion pictures in their teaching.

TO OBTAIN more information about the use of some of these films, and also to discover the problems encountered in their use, a long questionnaire was developed and sent only to those in the Department of Education. Fourteen of the 16 college instructors in the Department who used films replied to the questionnaire.

The following table shows the teaching field of each instructor and the number of motion pictures which he used:

Used by an instructor in:	Films Used	Used by an instructor in:	Films Used
Visual Aids	15 (Approx.)	Elementary Education	3
Industrial Arts	12 (Approx.)	Teaching of Social Studies	2
History of Education	10	Teaching of Social Studies	2
Nursing Education	7	Elementary Education	2
Secondary Education	6	Guidance	1
Industrial Arts	6	Industrial Arts	"Several"
Teaching of Social Studies	3		
Guidance	3		

The largest number of films, 15, was used—as would be expected—in the class in visual aids. The next largest, 12, was used by an instructor in Industrial Arts. The median number of films used by the 14 instructors was 3. These films[1] may, of course, have been used several times during the year.

Three instructors were unable to recall the names of the films used. The remaining ten instructors reported 33 films.

The instructors were asked to give general estimates of the value of the films for their purposes according to a

[1] In reporting the particular films used, those from the class in Visual Aids are omitted, since many films were viewed in that class for the express purpose of becoming acquainted with many kinds of motion pictures in a variety of fields.

4–point rating: excellent, good, fair, or poor. The names of the films and the rating for the purpose given each film are as follows—most of the films were used by one instructor, the numbers using those marked are given in the footnotes:

	Instructor's Rating
1. Alice Adams	Fair
2. Aluminum[2]	Excellent
3. And So They Live[3]	Excellent
4. Around the Acropolis	Good
5. Arts and Crafts in Mexico	Good
6. Children Must Learn[4]	Good
7. City, The	Good
8. Conservation in Ohio	Excellent
9. Darkroom Procedure	Fair
10. Development of the Earth	Good
11. Dynamic Learning	Fair
12. Exploring the Universe	Excellent
13. Free Schools—Hope of Democracy	Poor
14. Give Me Liberty	Excellent
15. Goodbye Mr. Germ	Good
16. How to Operate a Motion Picture Projector	Excellent
17. How to Run a Lathe	Excellent
18. Let My People Live	Excellent
19. Louis Pasteur	Fair
20. Luther Burbank	Poor
21. (Indian Film on T.B.)	Good
22. On the Firing Line	Excellent
23. Pedal Pushers	Good
24. Plow That Broke the Plains[2]	Good
25. Pottery Making	Fair
26. River, The	Good
27. Solar Family	Good
28. Story of Alfred Nobel	Excellent
29. They Do Come Back	Good
30. Tomorrow's Citizens[2]	Excellent
31. Travel Film	Excellent
32. Trip to an Armor Gallery	Fair
33. Under Southern Skies	Excellent

The instructors rated 13 of the films as excellent for their purposes, 12 as good, 6 as fair, and 2 as poor. Thus, it may be said that the majority of the films were considered satisfactory for the purposes which they were to serve. The two films rated poor were old films which are now obsolete except as historical documents.

In order to determine the ways in which some of the films were used, each instructor was asked to choose one of the better films and to indicate the chief purposes which it helped him to achieve, the preparation which was made for it, and the follow-up activities which were carried on after viewing it.

An examination of the replies shows two uses of the films: One was to illustrate or demonstrate how motion pictures could be used in teaching elementary- or secondary-school boys and girls. The instructor said, in effect, "Here is an example of a film you could use when you start teaching. Let us consider

[2] Used by 2 instructors. [3] Used by 6 instructors. [4] Used by 3 instructors.

how it could be used most effectively in elementary- or secondary-school classes." The other emphasis was helping the student to develop certain broad understandings impinging on his own values. For example, the instructor who used a film to show how ineffective some schools are in "making significant differences in how people live," probably didn't expect to have any of his students use the film outside of teacher-education groups. Attention was focused not on films as materials, but rather on the problems which this film raised. The latter emphasis can be thought of as educating teachers through the use of films, while the former is on educating teachers about the use of films.

ANOTHER item in the questionnaire asked the instructors how they learned about the films which they used. The most frequent means was to discover in film catalogues the motion pictures which seemed suitable for the purpose. Four of the instructors stated that the Bureau of Educational Research suggested the films to them. Most of the other ways of learning about the films represent chance information which was obtained in a variety of ways.

In response to the question, "Can you suggest several ways to make it easier to learn about films?" an opportunity was given to check four statements, if the instructor agreed with them, and to add other comments. The statements and the frequency with which they were checked by the thirteen instructors are as follows:

	Frequency
Descriptions and evaluations of films should be written by competent individuals in the field of teacher education and made available to the College of Education teaching staff	9
A staff member should be responsible for locating films for teacher education and informing other staff members about them	8
New films of value for teacher education should be purchased and placed in the University film library	8
Films suitable for teacher education should be shown occasionally at departmental meetings	8

In further comments, the instructors suggested that greater faculty participation be secured in selecting materials, that brief teaching helps be written for each film, and that these helps be made available at easily accessible places.

ANOTHER problem which faces the instructor desiring to use motion pictures is the "red tape" or clerical work which seems necessary before a film can be obtained. In his book *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries,* Gerald McDonald says: "If books were as hard to get as films, little reading would be done in this country."[3] The inaccessibility of films is evidently one reason why they are not used more frequently in the College. The instructors were asked to suggest the most desirable way of organizing for obtaining the films, and the majority suggested that one office in the College be responsible for this.

In several classes, committees of students were given the responsibility for locating film catalogues, searching for suitable film titles, and, in some cases, previewing the films when they came to determine whether or not they would be suitable for use in the course as originally intended. One instructor used this procedure as a functional way of teaching students how to obtain films, since it gave students the experience of performing each step in the process.

The projection services for showing the films were provided by the Department of Photography, by the Bureau of Educational Research, and in a few cases, by outside groups. These services were rated by 9 instructors as excellent, by 3 as good, and by 3 as poor.

The instructors were invited, in the questionnaire, to make additional suggestions concerning the use of motion pictures in the teacher-education program. The comments had certain characteristics in common. In the first place, most of the instructors showed an enthusiasm for the use of motion-picture materials in their classes. They believed, however, that materials must be made more easily available and suggested that a teaching-materials laboratory be established. They also suggested that steps be taken to familiarize more of the staff members with the films in teacher education which are now available. Other instructors advised that considerable planning is necessary to learn about, obtain, and fruitfully use the films which are suitable for teacher education. Also included is the suggestion that students be given more actual experiences in using equipment and films.

[3] Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. p. vi.

THE third part of the study sought to discover why some instructors did not use motion pictures in their teaching programs. Twenty-four instructors, or 60 per cent of those who taught University classes in the Department of Education, come under this classification. Twenty-two of the 24 replied to the questionnaire which listed a number of reasons which could be checked and also provided space for remarks. More than half of the instructors added remarks.

Fifty per cent of the instructors not using films said they had no information about films which would contribute to their teaching program. Four of this group of 11 instructors said that they had made an effort to find some suitable materials but were not able to discover any. Three of the instructors specifically requested help in looking for materials.

Thirty-four per cent of the instructors not using films said that the courses which they taught were not of the type that could make use of motion pictures. One of the instructors explained that his courses were rather highly specialized and technical, while most films for teacher education are general. Several others thought that their classes were too small to make the showing of motion pictures a practicable procedure.

Twenty-seven per cent of the instructors not using films said that in the competition among the various materials which they could use in their classes, motion pictures have thus far not come to the fore. These instructors are probably willing to use films, but either good ones had not been conveniently available, or the instructors were satisfied with the materials already in use. If these instructors were confronted with good film materials conveniently available, they would probably use them.

Twenty-three per cent of these instructors believed that other materials were better adapted to their teaching purposes than were the existing films. Few motion pictures have been made for certain teacher-education areas. For example, there are many more films that relate to curriculum problems than to administrative problems. There are also more films dealing with the elementary and secondary level than with higher education. This statement by the instructors, therefore, may mean only that appropriate films were not available.

Eighteen per cent of the instructors not using films said that they had intended to use some but had not yet done any-

thing about it. College instructors, like other persons, sometimes put off certain things which they want to do. This 18 per cent, however, will welcome opportunities to use motion pictures. In fact, three of them asked for information about films for their classes when they returned the questionnaires, and each of the three used films shortly afterward.

In summary, the use of motion pictures in the teacher-education program at Ohio State University ranks them as important materials in the instructional program. Instructors generally recognize the contributions which motion pictures can make to the program and have made efforts to utilize them. However, motion-picture materials are not easily available, and each instructor must take the initiative in learning about materials and in arranging for their presentation. A teaching-aids service for the College which would include motion pictures as one of its materials is needed. This need was indicated both by the direct suggestions from the instructors and by the problems which they met in using films. It is the writer's opinion, based on the data obtained in the survey, that with a teaching-aids service, most of the classroom teachers will instruct students in the use of motion pictures by example as well as by precept.

[Vol. XXII, No. 4]

Changes in Administrative Positions in Ohio Public Schools

By EARL W. ANDERSON

OPPORTUNITIES for employment and advancement in public-school administration are of interest to many teachers, principals, and superintendents. The number of vacancies occurring in each type of administrative position and the channels of promotion into them definitely influence opportunities for advancement in this area, even though factors of major importance are ability to convince employers that one has executive qualifications, evidence of effectiveness in previous employment, degrees held, age, and amount and kind of experience.

In order to get information about the annual number of changes in administrative positions and the types of position

from which the new appointees were chosen, a study was made of the incumbents of administrative positions in Ohio schools covering the twelve years from 1931–32 to 1942–43. The educational directory published annually by the State Department of Education of Ohio was used in discovering changes in specific administrative positions for each year. Various means, including correspondence with county, city, and exempted-village superintendents, were used to discover the positions from which each new administrator came.

Table I shows the average number of changes in administrative positions in Ohio schools for the twelve-year period.

TABLE I

NEW APPOINTEES IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS IN OHIO SCHOOLS FROM 1931–32 TO 1942–43

Position	Average Number of New Appointees	Range in Annual Change in Position
(1)	(2)	(3)
County superintendent	9	5–18
Assistant county superintendent	3	0–8
City superintendent	11	6–14
Assistant city superintendent	2	0–7
Exempted-village superintendent	6	1–11
Local school head (under county supervision)	142	97–188
City high-school principal	26	14–41
Exempted-village high-school principal	9	3–16
City elementary-school principal*	87	79–99
Exempted-village elementary principal*	21	18–23
Total	316	

* Includes only years 1940–41 to 1942–43.

The largest number of administrative changes in Ohio schools occurred in the position of local school head in schools under county supervision. This is to be expected since in 1942–43 there are 877 such local school heads as contrasted with 113 city, 85 exempted-village, and 88 county superintendents, respectively. Changes in city elementary-school principalships were next highest in number. More changes occurred in high-school principalships than in city or exempted-village superintendencies.

THE percentages of new appointees in major administrative positions which came from each type of position are shown in Table II. Miscellaneous positions from which newly elected administrators came included members of the state department

of education, full-time graduate students, a college professor, book salesmen, supervisors, and the head of a private school.

Because of the small number of cases involved, assistant county superintendents and assistant city superintendents were not listed in the table. Half the assistant county superintendents came from positions as local school heads inside the same county. One-sixth were teachers in the county; one-third came from miscellaneous sources. Three-fifths of the assistant

TABLE II

THE PERCENTAGE OF NEWLY ELECTED SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN SPECIFIC AREAS WHICH CAME FROM EACH MAJOR TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

Positions from Which Newly Elected Administrators Came	Types of Positions Filled					
	County Superintendent	City Superintendent	Exempted-Village Superintendent	Local School Head	City Principal	Exempted-Village Principal
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Local school head	68	10	41	41	8	4
Assistant superintendent in the same system	11	4	.....	.....	.....	.....
Assistant superintendent in another system	.....	2	2	.....	3	.....
County superintendent	6	2	6	.....	.....	.....
High-school principal in the same system	.....	31	30	.....	.....	.....
High-school principal in another system	4	5	8	.....	17	4
Teacher in same system	2	5	2	31	39	68
Teacher in another system	.....	1	.....	17	4	17
City superintendent	.....	24	.....	.....	3	.....
Exempted-village superintendent	1	8	4	.....	1	.....
Elementary-school principal in the same system	.....	2	.....	.....	15	4
Former administrator or teacher	7	4	4	7	6	2
Miscellaneous	1	2	3	4	4	1

city superintendents came from within the system, mostly from high-school principalships. In listing new city high-school principals, all cases in which principals were transferred from one high school to another within the same system were omitted from the tabulation.

No efforts were made to discover the sources of the new elementary principals in the cities and exempted villages. The great majority probably came from teaching positions within

[*Continued on page 112*]

Pupil Failure in the Elementary Schools

By ATLEE BEECHY

In a study of pupil failure in the elementary schools of Columbus, Ohio, a slightly different approach to the problem is used. An attempt is made to determine the amount of failure in the elementary school and the areas in which most of this failure occurs. That is, the general failure picture is broken down, and the grades and subjects in which most of the elementary pupils fail are located. Perhaps the whole problem will be better understood if these areas of highest pupil failure are known.

The average percentage of failure in the elementary schools of Columbus except for special classes was 6.6 per cent for six semesters from 1938 to 1941, inclusive. This figure indicates that 93 per cent of the pupils enrolled in regular classes were promoted. An encouraging phase of the local picture is the fact that the average percentage of failure for the last three semesters studied was only 6 compared to 7 for the preceding three semesters.

The amount of failure among the elementary schools of Columbus varies greatly. For the second semester of 1939 22 schools had less than 5 per cent of failure; 22 schools from 5 to 10 per cent of failure; 7 schools from 10 to 15 per cent of failure; and five schools from 15 to 19 per cent of failure.

The average percentage of failure for each successively higher grade was less than that for the preceding grade. The sixth grade had an average of only 2.7 per cent of failure. Statistics on this phase of the problem are found in Table I. The highest percentage of failure occurred in the first grade where the average for six semesters from 1938 to 1941, inclusive, was 11.8 per cent.

Interesting is the effect of instituting C groups in the lower grades. The boys and girls who according to test scores and teacher evaluation are not mentally mature enough to start the regular work of the first grade are placed in I-C. These pupils may be advanced to regular I-B groups whenever they have made sufficient progress. School regulations require a child to be six years old when he enters school. It does not

follow, however, that all six-year-olds have the same ability to do the work that the parents and the schools believe should be done in the first grade. Consequently a relatively high percentage of pupils fail. Many of these pupils are handicapped by limited backgrounds. It is to be hoped that the time spent in I-C will partially make up for this deficiency.

The pupils who need another semester's work before entering the second grade are placed in II-C. These boys and girls are not to be considered I-A failures, but they are to have new instructional materials and other new school experiences. Handling the situation in this way provides six semesters for the slow pupils to complete those important first two years of school. Only time will tell whether these pupils will be able to make normal progress through the remaining years of school.

In the short time this plan has been in operation it has materially reduced the amount of "labeled failure." The average percentage of failure in the first grade for the two semesters of the 1940–41 school year, during which I-C groups were first instituted on a large scale, was 7.7 compared to 13.8 for the preceeding four semesters.

THE problem of pupil failure is definitely related to subject failures, for pupils fail a grade when they receive a failing term mark in a certain number of subjects. The subjects have different percentages of failure. Spelling, with 7.9 per cent failure for the three-year period, heads the list. The other subjects follow in this order: arithmetic, 7.2; reading, 6.9; geography, 4.9; English, 3.3; history, 3; writing, 1.6; music, .7; and drawing, .6 per cent. The percentage of failure in each subject for each semester is given in Table II.

Measuring standards vary greatly with subjects and teachers. The standards used in measuring spelling and arithmetic are generally more objective than those used in measuring drawing or music. This situation may in part explain the higher percentage of failure in these subjects. Since so many children fail these subjects, it is possible that the fault lies partly in the subject-matter and also to some extent in how this subject-matter is taught. Standards cannot be discarded, but they may need to be changed in the light of new concepts of the purposes of the school. When pupils fail to achieve re-

quired standards, teachers often excuse themselves by saying the child does not apply himself or lacks sufficient mental ability. The responsibility of the school does not end here: In the formulation of standards the school must take into consid-

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF PUPIL FAILURE BY GRADES

Grade	1938–39		1939–40		1940–41		Average
	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
I	15.0	12.8	14.6	12.9	7.9*	7.4†	11.8
II	7.5	8.7	7.9	7.8	9.1	9.8	8.5
III	6.4	5.9	6.5	5.1	6.6	7.0	6.3
IV	7.0	5.0	5.6	5.9	5.2	5.2	5.7
V	4.3	5.8	5.0	4.1	5.2	5.6	5.0
VI	2.3	3.0	2.4	2.4	3.4	2.9	2.7

* There were 460 pupils in 45 schools enrolled in I-C.
† There were 327 pupils in 43 schools enrolled in I-C.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF PUPIL FAILURE BY SUBJECTS

Subject	1938–39		1939–40		1940–41		Average
	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Arithmetic .	7.1	7.3	7.2	6.7	7.5	7.5	7.2
Drawing ..	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
English ...	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.4	3.7	3.5	3.3
Geography .	4.8	4.7	5.2	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9
History ...	2.7	2.5	3.5	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.0
Music	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7
Reading ...	6.9	6.5	7.6	6.8	6.5	6.8	6.9
Spelling ...	7.8	7.3	8.3	7.5	8.4	8.2	7.9
Writing ...	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.6

eration social attitudes, experience backgrounds, and physical and mental equipment. The school must adapt its program to meet the needs, capacities, and interests of the pupils which it serves.[1]

[Vol. XXII, No. 4]

[1] An article which will appear in the May issue will deal with the subject of pupil failure according to sex.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

An Opportunity

AMONG other changes which the war has brought is the extensive participation of teachers and pupils, especially of the secondary schools, in types of training and service directly related to the war effort. In many secondary schools the High School Victory Corps has been established as a means of promoting and directing these war-related activities. Other schools are carrying on the activities without the formal establishment of a Victory Corps. This program of war activity has been regarded as an emergency measure justified by the seriousness of the situation and by the need for everyone to do his share in an all-out war effort. There can be no disagreement with this belief. But the Victory Corps and all that it represents can be much more than a mere expedient to meet an emergency. It offers an opportunity to bring about a permanent improvement in secondary education of first-rate importance.

One of the greatest weaknesses of our secondary schools has been that they lack real, vital connection with life outside. They have their own program, activities, and values. Students have studied certain subjects because they were prescribed by the school. They have engaged in numerous activities—athletics, clubs, assemblies, student government, and the like—but in the main these have been school activities having little or no connection with life outside.

No one questions the value of organized subject-matter or of such school activities; both are essential to the proper development of boys and girls. But they are not enough. An important additional means of education, participation in activities which are useful in the community outside the school, has in general been lacking. This must be provided if the secondary school is fully to meet its obligation of developing good citizens.

Through war work, with or without the Victory Corps, secondary schools are now doing this to a far greater extent than ever before. In so doing they are rediscovering the old truth that there is no satisfactory substitute for socially useful

work as a type of educational experience and that pupils need experience in work which is useful, not only to the limited society within the school but to the larger one outside.

Insofar as schools are actually incorporating such work into their programs and utilizing fully the educational opportunities which it offers, they are restoring to secondary education a large measure of that quality of reality which apprenticeship education possessed and which has been conspicuously lacking in much of our school work. To the extent that they are treating it as a necessary but unfortunate interference with the work of the school, they are failing to measure up to their opportunity.

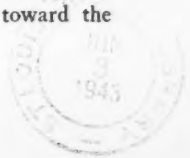
It is not enough, however, to incorporate such work into the program merely for the duration of war. Schools must seize the opportunity which the war offers to do this on a permanent basis. As so often happens, a social crisis has made possible a permanent improvement of the first magnitude. It is to be hoped that the secondary-school profession will have the educational statesmanship to take advantage of its unparalleled opportunity.

R. H. E.

Comments by Readers

THE article "Acceleration versus Lock Step" in the February number of the BULLETIN has called forth a number of comments. Albert Barnett, assistant dean of the Division of Arts and Sciences, Texas Technological College, finds it so valuable that he plans to use a portion in one of his courses. Arthur N. Gray, principal of Durham, New Hampshire, Center School, writes as follows:

> The acceleration of pupils and students is a burning question at the present time and has received considerable impetus from the demands of our war machine. I have yet to see, however, a controlled experiment that has been worked out to show the desirability of acceleration in the public schools. It seems to me that to point out that the students who enter college at an earlier-than-average age receive higher-than-average marks in college proves nothing of value to the cause of acceleration.
>
> If we are to argue the merits of acceleration, let us first formulate our educational objectives and then uncover facts, pro and con, concerning acceleration to determine those which contribute toward the achievement of our objectives.



Superintendent Burkholder, of London, Ohio, as a school administrator in an ordinary community and as the father of two sons just beginning school, says:

It has been a real question in my mind for a number of years whether acceleration should take place. If a speeded-up program for those pupils who are capable is used, where should the acceleration be made? If it is to be made in the grades or in high school, how are we to educate the public to the fact that Student X who is the same age and lives next door to Student Y should be advanced more rapidly than Student Y? If we accelerate these students in the grades and in high school, should they be sent to college away from home influences from the ages of thirteen to sixteen? These are some of the actual problems which we face when we desire to accelerate.

The most extended comment comes from another school superintendent, Mr. Smith, of Crestline, Ohio:

Whether one agrees or disagrees with [Mr. Pressey's] conclusion that a judicious amount of acceleration is defensible and desirable as an educational policy depends to no small degree upon his philosophy of education. The research under discussion indicates that . . . the usual educational hurdles may be negotiated by certain individuals in less than the usual amount of time. Those who subscribe to a program of education in the main concerned with relatively fixed, quantitative standards will probably be inclined to agree with the conclusions drawn.

Those who incline toward a developmental concept of education, however, are likely to question an accelerated program on the basis of its effect on an individual's total development. While they will not question the validity of the data in this study or its value in a limited aspect of teacher education, they will be inclined to limit its value as an index for educational procedure generally. They will argue that the significance of acceleration does not lie in the fact that the younger students in this study attained "better than average"; they will say that the criterion for any accelerated program should be whether or not it affords the students opportunities to achieve what they might reasonably be expected to achieve in terms of their own capacities, rather than in comparison with the achievements of their fellows. . . . They will say that if educational experiences are generally valuable, should they not be especially valuable to those who, according to the data in this study, have supernormal capacity to profit thereby? For those who have the evident ability to profit from educational experiences, the answer should not be fewer educational experiences, but more educational experiences of adequately stimulating quality. They will say further is it not possible that society may suffer in arrested leadership by arbitrarily terminating the conventional educational experiences of these younger and more capable students when they have attained

relatively fixed patterns of achievement? Should they not rather be afforded as much opportunity as possible for the realization of their own individual growth potentials?

The writer does not share completely Mr. Pressey's deprecation of "the educational lock step" wherein the great majority of students spend a fixed number of years in formal education. Rather he is inclined to deprecate the lock-step curriculums through which most of them have passed—curriculums which make little provision for adequate and adjusted stimulation and for responsible learning. . . . The study seems to point out rather clearly what has been learned from some previous studies, namely that bright students tend to be understimulated and educationally underprivileged. Enriching educational experiences rather than abbreviating them should produce individuals who will have more nearly attained their peculiar educational potentialities than now is the case—individuals who will thereby have the possibilities of greater and more effective social service and leadership.

The very practical and sensible comments regarding my summary of our research on acceleration are of distinct help to us in planning certain phases of our further work. Mr. Smith is quite right that progress through an educational program should be based on the totality of an individual's development. That is exactly what we are arguing for as against the concept of progress which is based on the crude fact of number of elapsed years since a pupil's birth. There are few greater affronts to a developmental concept of education than a mechanical grade-a-year progress for everyone in spite of the evident developmental fact that all children do not mature at the same rate. We are simply arguing that Mr. Smith should apply the developmental concept in his classification of pupils. We would also say that a developmental concept of education requires recognition of the fact that young people after a time reach adulthood and that a system of education which unduly prolongs adolescence for our ablest young people into years when they legitimately desire to begin their careers, achieve financial independence, and marry can do as much harm as an educational program unduly shortened. Surely more young men than formerly might graduate from college at twenty-two instead of the average twenty-three or finish medical school a year earlier than the pre-war average of twenty-eight without their suffering "arrested leadership" but rather with added opportunity for adult accomplishment. Data bearing on these problems will be presented in a later paper.

Mr. Burkholder's comments upon problems of community relationships in selective acceleration are very much to the point. For years the public has been educated against progress through school gauged by each pupil's total development, because the crude attempts at differential progress made fifteen years and more ago sometimes had very unfortunate results, especially in social adjustment. Surely the public can be re-educated to see that it is educationally unsound to keep together an immature little boy who is developmentally twelve and a big, husky, postpubertal youth who is developmentally sixteen simply because both happen to have been born fourteen years ago. Implied in this statement is no suggestion that thirteen-year-olds should go to college, but rather the belief that more boys than formerly might go at seventeen instead of eighteen. A very superior and mature boy planning a medical career entered college at sixteen. Since he had eight years of full-time education still ahead of him, the acceleration did not seem extreme. By breaking down the usual sharp grade stratification in elementary and secondary school, and by careful guidance, educational progress can be adjusted to each pupil's development and objectives. A paper to appear shortly by Mr. Van Til of the University School will discuss these questions.

SIDNEY L. PRESSEY

THE State Department of Education and the five state universities of Ohio are sponsoring a series of conferences for teachers and administrators on the improvement of instruction in the elementary schools of the state. One conference will be held at each co-operating university, according to the following schedule: June 14–18, Bowling Green State University; June 21–25, Miami University, June 28–July 2, Ohio University; July 12–16, Kent State University; and July 19–21, Ohio State University. At each conference members of the State Department of Education and members of the staffs of the state universities will be leaders. Later the results of the deliberations will be published for wider distribution.

READINGS

Books to Read

Youth Looks at Science and War. Published jointly by Science Service, Washington, D. C., and Penguin Books, Inc., New York. 1942. viii+133 pp.

This book is a collection of essays by the 40 Washington trip winners of the first annual Science Talent Search conducted by Science Clubs of America, Science Service, Washington, D. C. and Penguin Books, New York.

Many science teachers will welcome such a book as *Youth Looks at Science and War* because it contains some of the best thinking of secondary-school science students. This is an excellent means for recognizing the significant contributions which the youth of our nation are making to current problems.

The book contains forty articles grouped under the chapter headings Weapons and Defense, Machines and Power, Methods and Materials, Health and Man Power. These articles are highly informative and present in clear, concise language some fruitful suggestions for further research. The lay reader will find in them an interesting account of recent thinking in regard to contributions of science to winning the war and a lasting peace. Problems of producing new weapons, improvement of machines for use now and later, the development of substitutes and synthetics, and suggestions for maintaining personal health under conditions of social stress are all discussed by these high-school students.

Throughout the book one finds an expression of faith in the ability of man to think through these problems and to utilize the methods of science for the improvement of living. There is a sincere belief that making the world a better place in which to live is a responsibility of the science student.

Finally, the reader will be interested in the comments regarding the kind of person who succeeds in the Science Talent Search. The great variety of interests and abilities represented among these young authors indicates that their thinking is accompanied by a rather broad range of experiences rather than being confined to science alone.

JOHN A. RAMSEYER

MORT, PAUL R., AND CORNELL, FRANCIS G. *American Schools in Transition.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. xxviii+546 pp.

This is a statistical study of the rate, extent, and factors affecting diffusion of educational practices using the state of Pennsylvania as a laboratory. It was made under the direction of the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Studies. First, 183 items in 344 communities were studied by a questionnaire. This was followed by the study of 9 items in 36 representative communities using personal interviews. The items were: public kindergarten, reorganized high schools, special classes for the mentally handicapped, homemaking for boys, adult leisure activities, integration of extra-curricular experiences, elimination of elementary final examinations, integrated curriculums, and supplementary reading. The data on each item were studied as to the time diffusion and geographical diffusion patterns as related to the

structural pattern of the school districts and as to the part played by individuals and agencies in the adaptation process.

The study traces 9 adaptations through the following levels of diffusion: inventive combination and theory—pre-introduction, experimentation (up to 3 per cent diffusion), early diffusion (less than 10 per cent diffusion), and later diffusion (over 10 per cent diffusion). A definite time pattern common to all was found. Allowing x to stand for the time required for a given adaptation to go from 10 per cent to 20 per cent diffusion, the authors found that $10x$ to $20x$ would represent the time spent in the first level, $5x$ the second, and $2x$ the third, leaving $9x$ to represent the time from 10 per cent to 100 per cent diffusion. The value of x of course varies for each adaptation studied.

Of particular interest is the analysis of the factors affecting the introducing of adaptations or the retarding of such innovations. One conclusion of the authors is that in general the state department of education exercises a *laissez faire* attitude toward new adaptations and, after one has been somewhat adopted in leading centers, takes it for granted even though most schools have not yet adopted it.

The implications of the theses advanced by the authors certainly call for a new look at the structure of American education. The division of authority between local and state officers and the dynamic interrelation of the school with society need consideration. Of particular interest at this time is the question as to what effect the war is having in accelerating adaptations. During a war public opinion is usually ahead of society's institutions rather than the reverse which may prevail in time of peace.

E. E. Lewis
R. L. Pounds

Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O. *Rural America Today*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. xvi+450 pp.

In this book are brought together recent factual data concerning the people and communities making up present-day rural areas. Rural education as here conceived includes not merely the schoolroom experience of children but an understanding of community needs, problems, and functions.

Inequalities which affect fully half the nation's children are so outlined as to shock the casual reader who has thought of them as affecting a small minority, if he has thought about it at all. The second part of the book presents programs which have been or are successful in relieving these inequalities and suggests ways of local, state, and national reorganization.

In the opinion of the authors, the framework both for discussion and action rests upon the premise that since "the natural sociological community represents a unit within which people are bound together by many common interests and are accustomed to working together, it represents the best local unit for planning (page 49).

Not the least of their contributions is the section at the end of each chapter entitled "Authorities for the Facts." Here are listed sources, tables, figures, and data, both published and unpublished, which will greatly facilitate further investigation for those so inclined.

The General Education Board sponsored the study. The student will find much here to claim his thought and consequent action.

Florence Greenhoe Robbins

DEFERRARI, ROY J., editor. *Essays on Catholic Education in the United States.* Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1942. xi+556 pp.

This book is a collection of twenty-six essays (plus one short note) written by as many authors, each dealing with some aspect of Catholic education in the United States. The authors are chosen from the hierarchy, the secular clergy, religious communities, and the laity. This volume follows one entitled *Vital Problems of Catholic Education in the United States*, published in 1939. The works complement each other: the two together are designed to give "a lucid and comprehensive view of Catholic education at work in our land." Some of the essays in the present volume more fully treat topics dealt with in the earlier work, while others discuss topics not included there.

The work is divided into five parts: Fundamental Principles, Division of the Educational System, Professional Schools, Some Special Fields, and Catholic Education within Special Groups. The various essays, written by different individuals and dealing with widely different subjects, naturally differ in style and method of treatment.

Certain characteristics, however, are common to many of them. Many of the authors use the historical approach to the problems and conditions of the present. They show familiarity with past and present conditions, not only in Catholic but also in non-Catholic education. Thus the author of the chapter on graduate studies has high praise for and true insight into the significance of the work of Presidents Gilman, Hall, and Harper as pioneers in developing graduate work at Johns Hopkins, Clark, and Chicago. The authors are not satisfied merely to give a factual exposition of their topics but include a critical evaluation as well; they discuss what should be, as well as what is, and do not hesitate to point out needs and shortcomings.

This book of essays constitutes a valuable contribution to our understanding of an important segment of American education.

R. H. ECKELBERRY

BAYLES, ERNEST E., AND BURNETT, R. WILL. *Biology for Better Living.* New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1942. xiii+754 pp.

In the preface to this recent textbook designed for high-school biology classes, the authors have set forth several aims which they endeavor to realize. Among them are the following: to present scientific studies of human problems instead of mere scientific information, to enable students to live in and participate in the reconstruction of a world where change is accepted as normal rather than as abnormal, to present problems recognized by the students and to present contrasting ideas concerning these problems. All problems revolve around the improvement of human living conditions.

The eight units into which the book is divided cover problems of use and conservation of land, adaptation of living things to environmental conditions, utilization of food in the body, plant and animal behavior, personal and social health, change and improvement in living things, reproduction in plants and animals, and conservation of biological resources. Problems, suggested projects, and excellent reading lists are given at the end of each chapter. A glossary of scientific words is also included in the volume.

The book is adequately and pleasantly illustrated with both drawings and

photographs, many of the latter from the United States Department of Agriculture.

The authors have presented their material in a way which should both realize their aims and appeal to the interest of the student.

MARIAN ESTEP

BUTLER, CHARLES H., AND WREN, F. LYNNWOOD. *The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. xii+451 pp.

This book reflects the rich background of the authors who are experienced and capable teachers, entirely at home in the field of mathematics and thoroughly familiar with the problems of the classroom teacher as well as those of the administrator. Coming from such a source, this publication should command the interest and attention of all those concerned with the teaching of mathematics in the secondary school. There are three main divisions in the organization of the content: the place and function of mathematics in secondary education, the improvement and evaluation of instruction in secondary mathematics, and the teaching of the special subject-matter of secondary mathematics. The first of these emphasizes the place of mathematics in the curriculum of the secondary school, the second deals with problems which are of special concern to the administrator and the supervisor, while the third deals primarily with the major problems of instruction in connection with special topics.

Ideas are clearly and effectively presented, and the authors are to be congratulated on the clarity of their writing. While there might be some disagreement concerning the opinions of the authors on certain curriculum problems such as the nature of the ninth-grade program and the status of demonstrative geometry as "a separate and largely self-contained course," one is left with no uncertainties as to what they believe and why they believe it. Each chapter is followed by a series of exercises, useful for promoting and stimulating discussion on important issues, as well as a comprehensive bibliography which should be most helpful to all students of mathematics education.

HAROLD FAWCETT

WATKINS, JOHN GOODRICH. *Objective Measurement of Instrumental Performance.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. x+88 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 860).

The title of this dissertation is misleading since the only instrument dealt with is the trumpet (or cornet). Furthermore, it fails to provide a criterion, as it purports to do, against which prognostic tests may be evaluated: there is no justification for assuming that the specific difficulties selected by cornet teachers as indications of a student's progress are more valid than the gross evaluations which have been been used as criteria heretofore. Even the interpretation that there is negative acceleration in sight reading and acquisition of technique is not justified, for there is no assurance that the early exercises in the tests differ in difficulty to the same degree as the later ones. Moreover, although the reliability of the test is high in the hands of one investigator, the evidence is that it would be low when administered by different experimenters.

The difficult field of testing in the ephemeral art of music is a graveyard of misdirected enthusiasms. Most studies have been valuable in showing what not to do. Such reports should be circulated among the investigators but should not be published or allowed to come into the hands of uncritical music educators.

M. EMETT WILSON

SINGH, J. A. L., and ZINGG, R. M. *Wolf-Children and Feral Man.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. xli+379 pp.

It was a strange story that Mrs. Singh heard one evening early in November, 1920, when her husband returned after an absence of six weeks in the jungle. Mr. Singh had made such trips before. Almost every year he would leave his parish in Midnapore in Bengal and the orphanage, where he and his wife were devoting their lives to abandoned and neglected children, to seek out some of the aboriginal tribes in their villages and win them to Christianity. That this time he had brought home two little girls who were in obvious need of their care did not surprise Mrs. Singh, for she knew how commonly unwanted children were abandoned in the jungle. What surprised her was to learn from her husband that these girls had been dug out of a wolf's den after they had become a source of terror to the superstitious people of the jungle, who had seen them from time to time and believed them to be evil spirits.

The diary, or journal, in which Mr. Singh recorded this story and added from day to day his observations of the development of these wolf-children, forms the first half of the book before us. It is an interesting and very significant chapter in child psychology and cultural anthropology. It has been edited by Robert M. Zingg of the Department of Anthropology at the University of Denver. During the five years he has had this diary, Mr. Zingg has not only collected evidence which substantiates its authenticity but has reviewed carefully the literature on feral children. He has also investigated another contemporary case, that of a wild boy captured in 1933 in Central America.

This comprehensive review of feral man with some discussion of cases of isolation forms the second part of the book. It is an excellent piece of critical research which brings together material from many scattered sources, some of them made available for the first time in English. Linberg's English translation of Feuerbach's *Kaspar Hauser*, published over a hundred years ago, while this famous case of "isolation by incarceration" was still living, but long since out of print, is republished in full.

Apart from its scientific significance for psychology and cultural anthropology, this book will claim attention because of its "human interest." Royalties from the sale of the book will go to the Midnapore Orphanage, where Mrs. Singh and her daughter have been carrying on since Mr. Singh's death in September, 1941.

FRANCIS N. MAXFIELD

ZIEMER, GREGOR ATHALWIN. *Education for Death: the Making of the Nazi.* Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1941. 208 pp.

As the Marshal of militant young Germany expressed it, the Nazi Party becomes interested in the child "before it is conceived." The interest starts in the Health Office with its Nazi law for hereditary good health and the city

hospital for women, where many undesirable women are sterilized. More than sixty mother-and-child homes, located in idyllic, natural surroundings, are maintained by the NSV (German Red Cross), where mothers, married or unmarried, imbued with Hitler fervor, await a son to live and die for Hitler. Until six years all boys and girls are educated together in preschool nurseries. From this point the sexes, if they maintain proper Nazi enthusiasm, pass through successive, progressive steps: the boy are *Pimpfs* from six to ten; *Jungvolk*, ten to fourteen; Hitler youth, fourteen to eighteen; then the university for finishing. The girls after nursery age are *Jungmaedel* from six to fourteen; *Bund Deutsche Maedel* (League of German Girls) from fourteen to twenty. The boys study military geography, history, sociology, and arithmetic interspersed with Nazi ideology—all with increasing intensity through the various stages of development. The girls study geography, history, race study, mathematics related to domestic duties, domestic science, and eugenics. All these are secondary to Nazi ideology intensively administered. There is but one purpose for the girl—to be a mother. The motivation throughout this entire educational program is typified by oaths taken at the end of each stage in which the girl or boy pledges to defend, live, and die for Hitler.

A. Sophie Rogers

* * *

Changes in Administrative Positions in Ohio Public Schools

[*Continued from page 98*]

the system. There is some tendency in a few of the larger cities to move high-school teachers into elementary-school principalships. The major proportion of the elementary-school principals probably came from elementary-school teaching positions.

Administrative vacancies were filled by promotion from within the system more often than from outside. During the past twelve years it appears that the insiders have had a definite, although not overpowering, advantage over aspirants from the outside as administrative vacancies have been filled in Ohio schools. These promotions from within averaged as follows: county superintendent, 65 per cent; city superintendent, 44 per cent; exempted-village superintendent, 32 per cent; city high-school principal, 54 per cent; and exempted-village high-school principal, 73 per cent.